Age Differences in Emotional Response to Future Events

by

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Abstract

Much prior research has been conducted on how emotions change across the life span. The current study aimed to determine age differences in emotional responses to future events by utilizing Linguistic Inquiry Word Count (LIWC) software to determine the quantitative usage of worry related words by both younger and older adults when speaking about common future events. All participants (n= 107) were asked to share three neutral past events and three neutral possible future events. These narratives were then recorded and analyzed via LIWC. Prior research shows that younger adults tend to experience more worry about the future than do older adults. According to the socioemotional selectivity theory, positive and negative processing biases are a product of time perspective. Furthermore, the discrete emotions theory of aging predicts that older adults experience an increase in sadness because of uncontrollable losses late in life. Individual correlations of anxiety related words use for past and future events were not statistically significant. However, follow-up t-tests on anxiety related word usage in young, middle-aged, and older adults, found that younger adults used more anxiety related words when speaking about the future as compared to older adults. Older adults, however, were using significantly more anxiety related words when speaking about the past than were middle-aged adults. The findings of the current study cannot be explained by the discrete emotions theory of aging or the socioemotional selectivity theory alone; therefore, suggesting an interaction between the predictions of these two theories. The current study could have implications for education about the relationship between worry and generalized anxiety disorder, especially in younger adults.

Age Differences in Emotional Response to Future Events

Do you ever experience worry about the future? Do you worry about that next test or what to wear to that social event next weekend? If you do experience worry about future events, you are not alone. It turns out, worry can be an adaptive emotion, preparing us for potential negative events or possibly even preventing negative events from occurring (McNeil and Dunlop, 2016). Though worry can be helpful, excess worry that interferes with daily function is a common characteristic of generalized anxiety disorder and is linked to increased levels of stress (McNeil and Dunlop, 2016).

Prior research on the prevalence of worry across the life span suggests that people tend to experience a decreased amount of worry as they age (Goncalves and Byrne, 2013). Goncalves et al. (2013) found that older adults tend to worry less about health, work, and relationships than do younger adults. Furthermore, research on the age- related positivity effect has shown that older adults are much more focused on being happy in the current moment, whereas younger adults tend to be more focused on the future and broadening their horizons in both their relationships and careers (Reed, Chan, and Mikels, 2014). This age difference is thought to occur because older adults have a reduced future time perspective. Older adults are more likely to focus on the present as they are unsure how much longer they will be living, whereas younger adults tend to focus on their more wide-open future (Reed et al, 2014).

The current study is an investigation into whether these differences in emotion can be detected in the words people use to describe future events. Before discussing the research methods and aims of the current study, it is important to discuss background

research on age differences in negative emotion, theoretical explanations for declines in negative affect, as well as worry as a construct and how worry is related to future thinking.

Age Differences in Negative Emotion

Despite stereotypes that aging is a negative experience, psychological research has generally found that older adults report lower amounts of most types of negative emotion, particularly worry and stress. For example, one study investigated age differences in well being using a nationally representative survey of adults in the United States (Stone, Schwartz, Broderick, and Deaton, 2010). The researchers found that feelings of stress declined after young adulthood and feelings of worry declined after middle age. The only negative emotion that did not change with age was sadness, which remained stable across the life course (Stone et al, 2010).

As another example, Teachman (2006) used the Epidemiological Studies-Depression Scale and a neuroticism measure to assess general negative affect. Neuroticism is often marked by the proneness to experience severe and intense negative emotions when faced with stress. These negative emotions can include anger, fear, and anxiousness (Sauer-Zavala, Wilner, and Barlow, 2017). The State Trait Anxiety Inventory was used to measure the tendency of a person to become anxious (Teachman, 2006). Based on negative affect measures, researchers found that young adults aged eighteen to thirty-five experienced the highest levels of negative affect (Teachman, 2006). There was a decrease in negative affect in participants aged forty to seventy-seven

years old, and then another increase in negative affect among the very old, aged seventy-seven and older, attributed to the loss of loved ones.

Together, these findings suggest that emotional health tends to improve from young adulthood through a person's 70s, but may decline at the very oldest ages as uncontrollable losses add up. Prior research on negative affect at varying ages leads to two possible theoretical explanations for emotional changes across the life course.

Theoretical Explanations for Declines in Negative Affect

The predominant psychological explanation for reduced negative affect in older adults stems from the Socioemotional Selectivity Theory (SST; Carstensen & Frederickson, 1998; Reed et al., 2014). SST states that being aware that one has less time left directs people towards focusing on positive and meaningful aspects in life (Hicks, Trent, David, and King, 2012). According to Carstensen and Fredrickson (1998), chronological age does not influence social cognitive processes. Rather, the amount of time left in life influences these social cognitive processes. Since older adults are aware that they have less time left to live, they show a strong information processing bias towards positive versus negative information (Reed et al, 2014). Younger adults, on the other hand, are under the impression that they have many years of life left to live and are more likely to worry about finding steady employment and having positive relationships. Younger adults show an information processing bias towards negative information (Reed et al, 2014).

The earliest studies on SST focused on how social partner choice varied in people with shorter future time perspectives. In their studies, Carstensen and Frederickson

(1998) first examined mental representation of social partners in a sample of people spanning 60 years of age. In their second study, Carstensen and Frederickson examined the mental representations of social partners in men that are relatively the same age, varying only in health condition. The researchers studied HIV negative men, HIV positive men with no AIDs symptoms, and HIV positive men with symptoms of AIDS. Carstensen and Frederickson (1998) found that all people approaching the end of life (those of old age and HIV positive men with symptoms of AIDs) weighed emotion more heavily than those who had no reason to believe that his life would end soon. Essentially, those nearing the end of life focused more on their emotionally positive social relationships (Carstensen and Frederickson, 1998).

One potential problem with focusing on existing, emotionally positive relationships is that these relationships may come to an end. These social losses may be particularly difficult for older adults, whose relationships are long-standing and more likely to end because of the death of a social partner. In this vein, the discrete emotions theory of affective aging predicts that older adults will experience greater feelings of sadness as they age (Wrosch, Barlow, Kunzman, 2018). This theory predicts that because older adults experience uncontrollable losses, such as death of loved ones and loss of mobility, that sadness can serve an adaptive function (Wrosch et al, 2018). Sadness can facilitate adjustment to losses later in life and assist in signaling the need for social support (Wrosch et al, 2018). Discrete Emotions Theory is consistent with the previously described finding that sadness does not decline with age, whereas other negative emotions do (Stone et al., 2010).

Worry and Future Thinking

One limitation of the research on age differences in negative emotion is that it relies heavily on self-report measures. Self-report measures often lack validity, as participants may lie, exaggerate their answers, or give socially desirable answers to the questions asked in a survey. In contrast, the current study aims to examine age differences in emotional experience through objective measures by using text analysis software to analyze previously collected transcripts describing past and possible future events.

Imagining potential future events is called "Episodic Future Thinking". Researchers have found that episodic future thinking likely requires constructive episodic memory processes (Schacter & Addis, 2008). In order to simulate future events, the human mind must draw on the past and recombine elements of past experiences. The psychological and neural processes involved in remembering the past and simulating the future overlap significantly (Schacter & Addis, 2008). Since constructive memory is not a literal reproduction of the past, humans are often prone to memory errors and distortions which can then result in biased future thinking (Schacter & Addis, 1998).

Much of the research on episodic future thinking suggests that people think more positively about the future than about the past (Rubin, 2014). One illustration of this is a study by Lachman, Rocke, Rosnick, and Ryff (2008). In their study, Lachman et al. (2008) examined the actual and perceived trajectories of change in life satisfaction over a nine-year period. These researchers found that younger and middle-aged adults perceived their past as being worse than their present, and thought that their future would be better

than their present. However, actual trajectories for the life satisfaction do not show this perceived pattern; instead, life satisfaction was stable over time. Essentially, young adults believe their past is worse than it was and that their future will be better than it turns out to be (Lachman et al, 2008). In contrast, older adults were more accurate in both remembering and predicting their life satisfaction over this period.

This "rosy" view of the future may seem at odds with the reports of worry and anxiety in younger adults. This may be because worry can work as a means of avoidance for taking action (Borkovec, Ray, and Stober, 1998). According to Borkovec et al (1998), worry is primarily a verbal phenomenon that distracts a person from visually imagining threatening future events. Switching from visual imagining to verbal worrying paradoxically reduces the negative emotion felt from imagining the future. Unfortunately, abstract worrying may prevent concrete actions to deal with a future-threatening event. Therefore, dealing with threat through worry may maintain conditions of emotional disturbance (Borkovec et al, 1998).

Not everyone agrees that worry is maladaptive, however. According to McNeill and Dunlop (2016), worry can serve as a helpful tool in certain situations. Worry can be helpful and serve positive outcomes due to worry providing an adaptive function that recognizes a potential negative event and helps people avoid the potential negative event altogether or prevent the event from occurring (McNeill and Dunlop, 2016). However, worry about future events may be detrimental in some cases, as worry is linked to generalized anxiety disorder and a higher risk of stress. (McNeill and Dunlop, 2016).

[1]It is possible that concretely imagining future events can cause increased amounts of worry, even more worry than when recalling past events. Future events are generally rated as more personally significant than are past events (Rubin, 2014). In a study done at Duke University, researchers found that future negative events are much more troubling than past negative events (Rubin, 2014). The 76 undergraduate participants in this study were asked to remember real past events that had an impact on their lives and to imagine future negative and positive events that could happen and would likely have an impact on their lives (Rubin, 2014). On the standardized test measures used to gauge the reactions to traumatic events, participants' scores for future negative events were much higher than scores for past negative events (Rubin, 2014). In fact, the scores for future negative events were in the range that qualifies for a PTSD diagnosis (Rubin, 2014). The above study only examined undergraduate college students, or individuals in a younger age group, and no individuals in an older age group. However, the research shows that when simulating negative events, younger adults experience increased amounts of worry and trauma (as measured by the PTSD diagnosis criteria), as compared to the worry and trauma experienced after speaking about past negative events (Rubin, 2014).

The Current Study

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[1] Worry is a general feature of anxiety disorders (Rabner, Mian, Langer, Comer, Pincus, 2017). Because worry is a general characteristic of anxiety disorders, the frequency of use of anxiety related words will be used to determine the amount of worry

In order to examine which age group experiences the highest levels of worry when describing future events, data from an experiment performed by Dr. Lisa Emery will be analyzed. In this experiment, participants aged 20 to 77 were tested (Emery, Hardin, Graves, & Knight, in preparation). All participants were asked to complete a mental time travel task in which they describe both past and future everyday events. For the past events, participants were cued to remember a specific type of event that lasted at least a few minutes but no longer than a day. For the future events, participants were asked to simulate an event that would last at least a few minutes, but no longer than a day.

In the study, the transcripts of participants' event descriptions were examined for the proportion of positive and negative words using the Linguistic Inquiry of Word Count (LIWC) software (Emery et al., in preparation). With LIWC, each word in the text file is compared to a dictionary file containing categorized words (Tausczik and Pennebaker, 2010). Past research provides support for LIWC accurately identifying emotion in language use (Tausczik and Pennebaker, 2010). The function of emotion words used provides important psychological cues to human thought processes (Tausczik and Pennebaker, 2010).

In the original analysis (Emery et al., in preparation), the overall "negative word" category was used to examine age differences. There were, however, no age differences in overall negative word use. Based on the previous research suggesting that different *types* of negative emotion may be differently impacted by aging, the current research will use LIWC to specifically examine anxiety-related words. It is hypothesized that younger

adults will use more anxiety related words when speaking about future events than do older adults. [2]

Method

Participants

Participants consisted of 107 participants aged 20-77, all recruited from the Boone, North Carolina Community (Emery et al, in preparation). All participants completed a screening measure for dementia (mini-cog test; Borson, Scanlan, Brush,Vitaliano, & Dokmak, 2000) , depression (Depression, Stress and Anxiety scale; DASS; Henry and Crawford, 2005), and PTSD (PCL-C; Blanchard, Jones-Alexander, Buckley, & Forneris, 1996). Any participant who failed the mini-cog test was excluded from subsequent testing. Somewhat surprisingly, age was not significantly associated with scores on the DASS or PCL-C, except that middle-aged adults scored higher on Stress than young or older adults (Emery et al., in preparation).

Materials and Procedure

An autobiographical interview was used in this research. Through the autobiographical interview, participants were asked to describe common events (Emery et al, in progress). Six common event prompts were chosen; attending a social gathering, eating a meal outside of the home, getting a haircut, getting dressed up, interacting with a child, and attending an event that requires a ticket. The event narratives described by

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[2] Because of the relationship between excessive worry and generalized anxiety disorder, the LIWC dictionary specific to anxiety related words will be utilized in the current research.

participants refer to events that actually occurred in the past or events that will likely occur in the future.

Each participant described six total events. After each event description, the participant filled out past/future event questionnaire, which included 21 statements about varying feelings towards a described event (Emery et al, in progress). These 21 statements ask participants about the emotions they felt while actually describing the event itself (Emery et al, in progress). The past and future event questionnaires asked identical questions, with verb tense being taken into consideration for past versus future (Emery et al, in progress).

The first two events described by the participants were always prompted with a control induction. The control induction involved the experimenter reading the event prompt and asking participants to describe the event with little additional questioning. The next two events were prompted with either a semantic induction or an episodic induction. The last two events (five and six) were also prompted with either a semantic or episodic induction; depending on what event three and four were prompted with. For episodic and semantic induction, prompting was separated into three sets of inquiries concerning the surroundings, the people, and the actions of the event. After each specific prompted question, participants described that event component (surroundings, people, or actions) with as much detail as possible.

For the episodic events, participants were asked about the mental imagery about their surroundings, the mental imagery about the people at the event, and the mental imagery about his or her actions performed during the event. For the semantic events, participants were asked about their connection to the surroundings, the connection to the

people at the event, and a connection to the actions performed by the participant at the event (Emery et al, in progress).

Current Analysis

In the current research, the LIWC2015 software was utilized to analyze the transcriptions collected in the prior research. LIWC has an internal default dictionary that identifies which words should be counted in text files (Pennebaker, Boyd, Jordan, Blackburn, 2015). Any word analyzed by LIWC in a given text file is referred to as a target word, whereas words contained in a LIWC dictionary file are referred to as dictionary words (Pennebaker et al, 2015). As mentioned previously, the LIWC anxiety dictionary was utilized to determine the frequency of use of worry related words. The full LIWC anxiety dictionary can be found in Appendix A. Examples of words in the anxiety dictionary includes: fear, nervous, stress, and worries (Pennebaker et al, 2015). After processing all transcriptions through LIWC, LIWC provided an output variable equal to the percentage of words in the anxiety dictionary used as compared to total word usage by a participant. The percentage of anxiety dictionary words used by a participant was the primary dependent variable in the analyses.

To analyze the data, a 3 (Instruction: Control vs. Episodic vs. Semantic) X 2 (Event Direction: Past vs. Future) Analysis of Covariance was run, with Age included as a continuous covariate. The current study's hypothesis did not involve the Instruction manipulation, so only the effects of Age and Event Direction are reported below.

Results

Primary Analysis

The ANCOVA results on anxiety words showed a main effect of event direction, $F(1,96) = 7.00$, $p = 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.068$. Specifically, participants used slightly more anxiety related words in the past conditions ($M = .13$, $SE = .02$) than in the future conditions ($M = .12$, $SE = .02$). There was not a between-subjects main effect of age, $F(1,96) = 0.20$, $p = 0.66$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.002$. There was, however an interaction between event direction and age, $F(1,96) = 8.15$, $p = 0.005$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.078$. Specifically, there was a small positive correlation between the use of anxiety related words and age for the past condition $r(96) = 0.14$, $p = 0.165$ and a small negative correlation between the use of anxiety related words and age for the future condition $r(96) = -0.190$, $p = 0.061$. Though these correlations are not statistically significant, younger adults were using a higher number of anxiety related words when speaking about the future than are older adults and older adults were using a higher number of anxiety related words when speaking about the past than are younger adults.

To better understand the Event Direction x Age interaction, I plotted the average proportion of anxiety words used for the past and future events for younger adults (ages 20-39), middle-aged adults (ages 40-59) and older adults (ages 60+). This graph may be seen in Figure 1. Follow-up t-tests comparing each group found that younger adults used more anxiety words than older adults when talking about the future, $t(62) = 2.06$, $p = .043$, and that older adults used more anxiety related words than middle-aged adults when talking about the past, $t(59) = -2.04$, $p = .046$.

Supplementary Analysis

As stated above, the original analysis of this dataset (Emery et al., in preparation), included an analysis of the overall negative words used by participants. In contrast to the current analysis of anxiety-related words, the prior analysis found no statistically significant effects of age on general negative word use: there was no between subjects main effect for age, $F(1,96)= 0.823$, $p=0.367$, $\eta_p^2= 0.008$, nor an Event Direction x Age interaction, $F(1,96)= 0.003$, $p = 0.959$, $\eta_p^2= 0.000$. In LIWC, Anxiety words are a subset of Negative Words. It is possible; therefore, that another type of negative word is showing increases with age.

As reviewed above, research completed by Wrosch et al. (2018) has found that older adults tend to show an increase in sadness as they get older. The researchers show that this increase in sadness is likely due to age-related losses and loss of perceived control (Wrosch et al, 2018). In order to further explore negative word use results in the current study, an additional ANCOVA was run on the use of sadness related words. In this analysis, the interaction between age and event direction was not quite statistically significant, $F(1,96)=3.748$, $p=0.056$, $\eta_p^2= 0.038$. As may be seen in Figure 2, the only significant age difference was that the young used more sadness related words about the past than did middle-aged people, $t(69) = 2.17$, $p = .033$.

Discussion

The hypothesis that younger adults use more anxiety and worry related words when speaking about the future than do older adults was partially supported by the data. The ANCOVA on anxiety words did show an interaction between the direction of the

event (past vs. future) and age. Individual correlations relating anxiety related word use to past and future conditions in younger and older adults were not statistically significant. However, follow-up t-tests on anxiety related word usage in young, middle-aged, and older adults, found that younger adults using significantly more anxiety related words when speaking about the future as compared to older adults. Older adults, however, were using significantly more anxiety related words when speaking about the past than were middle-aged adults.

Though the future results were mostly in line with predictions, the fact that older adults were using more anxiety words about the past was unexpected. The results may, however, be consistent with Socioemotional Selectivity Theory. SST is primarily a theory about time perspective but research tends to focus primarily on *future* time perspective. Younger and older adults also vary on the length of their *past.* Younger adults perceive that they have a short past and a long future; therefore, younger adults experience greater uncertainty about the future (Reed et al, 2014). The experience of uncertainty can lead to greater amounts of worry in younger adults. On the other hand, older adults perceive a long past and shortened future (Reed et al, 2014). Though older adults perceive having less time left in the future and show an information processing bias towards positive information, older adults may also be experiencing uncontrollable losses at the end of life (Wrocsh et al, 2018). The uncontrollable losses at the end of life experienced by older adults and impending end of life can lead to an experience of sadness in older adults as hypothesized by the discrete emotions theory.

Neither the socioemotional selectivity theory, nor the discrete emotions theory alone explains the results of this study. According to the discrete emotion theory of aging,

older adults face loss later in life that can lead to loss of perceived control and feelings of sadness over their life. These feelings of sadness can lead to adaptive behaviors, such as asking for support from loved ones (Wrosch et al, 2018).

The exploratory analysis on sadness related word usage, however, was counter to the predictions of this theory. That is, it was younger adults who were using the most sadness-related words, but only when talking about the past. These contradictory results could be explained by the fact that the older adults in the current study are not that old according to traditional age groupings, with the very oldest grouping consisting of adults 85 and older. The oldest participant in the current study was 77 years of age. Wrosch et al (2018) studied how sadness changed over time within a group of older adults with an average age of 72.5 years old. It is possible that the results in this study would have been different if there had been a higher older age of participants. Furthermore, it is interesting that young adults used a higher number of sad words when talking about the past. These results are, however, consistent with the Lachman et al (2008) study, in which young adults mis-remembered their past as being worse than it actually was.

One limitation of this study is that that the proportion of anxiety and sad related words is relatively small in both younger and older adults. Overall, the future stories told by the participants were relatively positive in nature. Though the proportion is low, there is still a main effect for direction and age for anxiety related words. The use of anxiety related words was also not assessed in terms of context of use in the future and past events. Coding for the context usage of these words could be useful in future research. For example, in a narrative, a participant could have stated, “I wasn’t worried.” The use

of ‘worried’ in this sentence would be counted by LIWC as an anxiety word, even though the context negates it.

In the future, psychological and physiological tests could also be utilized to measure the amount of anxiety and worry experienced by the participants when talking about future events. Future research could also test the physiological responses such as blood pressure and heart rate of younger and older adults when they are speaking about future events. Analyzing psychological feelings of distress after speaking about future events through measures such the DASS could also be beneficial. Another limitation was the relatively small sample (n= 107) from the small community of Boone, North Carolina. This sample is likely not representative of the population.

Though this study has limitations, a strength of the study is that the measure of anxiety related word usage is an objective measure of worry. This objective measure varies from self-report measures of worry used in prior studies. Consistent with self-report measures, this study found that younger adults used more anxiety words about the future. However, the fact that older adults used more anxiety related words about the past has not been seen in prior studies. It is possible that the objective measure uncovered something that self-reports could not.

Finally, although this study does not focus on psychological disorders, the results are consistent with findings that younger people are more likely to have anxiety disorders than are older people. Though worry functions as a common experience, excessive and uncontrollable worry can lead to a disruption in daily life and can result in Generalized Anxiety Disorder (Borkovec et al, 1998). This study does add to previous research on worry across the life course. Much prior research shows that younger adults experience

greater worry about future events (e.g. school, career prospects, relationships); therefore, having young adults interact more with middle-aged and older adults who tend to be less anxious could be beneficial. Furthermore, through the use of linguistic inquiry word counting software, the objective measure of worry used in this study may be effective in uncovering effects not seen in self-report measures. This objective measure may be particularly important for uncovering these effects in older adults who may be less willing to self-report any negative emotions.

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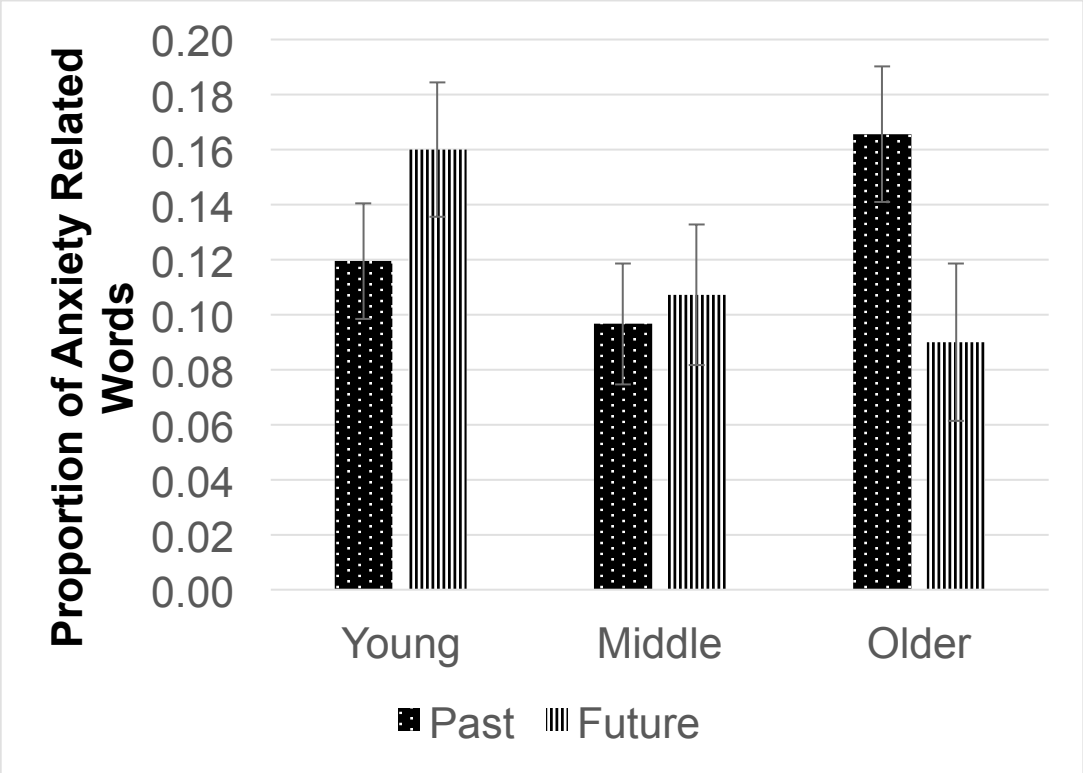

Figure 1. The use of anxiety related words when speaking about past and future events in young versus middle versus older adults.

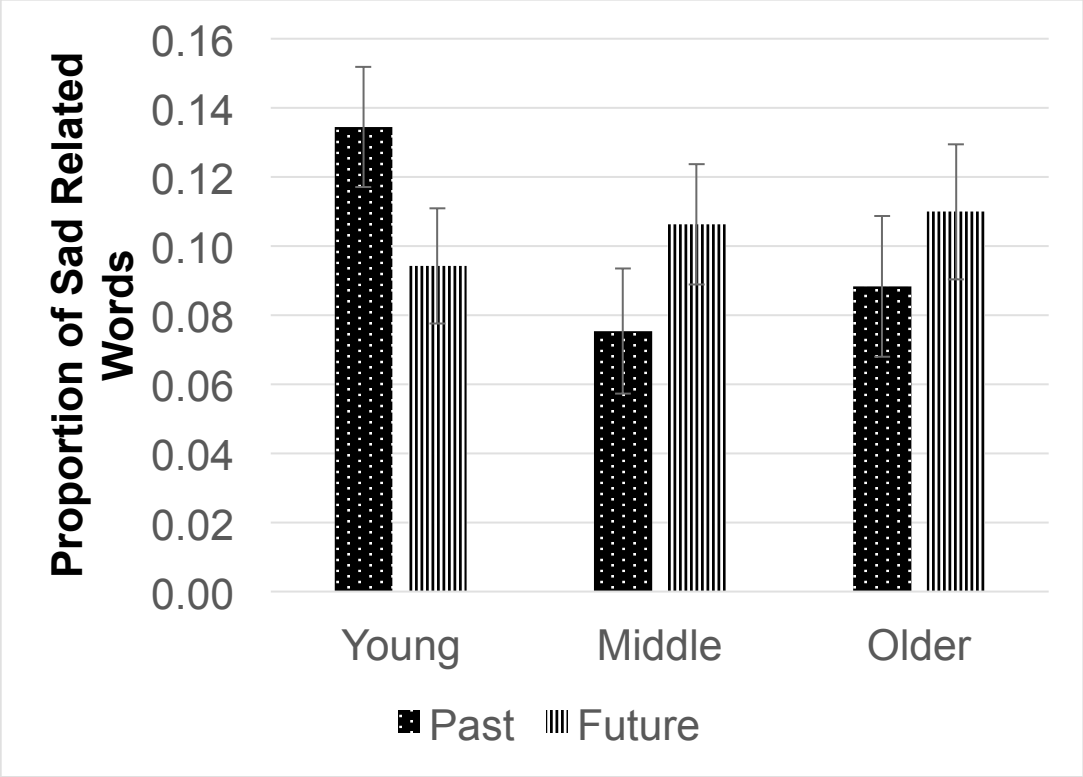

Figure 2. The use of sad related words when speaking about past and future events in young versus middle versus old adults.

Appendix A

LIWC Anxiety Words & Stems

Afraid
Alarm
Anxiety
Anxious
Anxiously
Anxiousness
Apprehens
Asham
Aversi
Avoid
Awkward
Confuse
Confused
Confusedly
Confusing
Desperat
Discomfort
Distraught
Distress
Disturb
Doubt
Dread
Dwell
Embarrass
Fear
Feared
Fearful
Fearing
Fears
Frantic
Fright
Guilt
Guilt-trip
Guilty
Hesita
Horrible
Horribly
Horrid
Horror
Humilat
Impatien
Inadequa
Indecis
Inhibit
Insecure
Irrational
Irrita
Miser
Nervous
Nervously
Nervousness
Neurotic
Obsess
Overwhelm
Panic
Paranoi
Petrify
Phobi
Pressur
Reluctan
Repress
Restless
Rigid
Rigidity
Rigidly
Risk
Scare
Scared
Scarier
Scariest
Scaring
Scary
Shake
Shaki
Shaky
Shame
Shook
Shy
Shyly
Shyness
Starti
Strain
Stress
Struggl
Suspiscio
Tense
Tensely
Tensing
Tension
Terrified
Terrifies
Terrify
Terrifying
Terror
Threat
Timid
Tremble
Turmoil
Twitchy
Uncertain
Uncomfortabl
Uncontrol
Uneas
Unsettle
Unsure
Upset
Upsets
Upsetting
Uptight
Vulnerab
Worried
Worrier
Worries
Worry
Worrying

Appendix B

LIWC Sad Words and Stems

Abandon
Agoniz
Agony
Alone
Bereave
Broke
Cried
Cries
Crushed
Cry
Crying
Depress
Depriv
Despair
Devastat
Disappoint
Discourag
Dishearten
Disillusion
Doom
Dull
Emptier
Emptiest
Emptiness
Empty
Fail
Fatigue
Flunk
Gloom
Gloomier
Gloomiest
Gloomily
Gloominess
Gloomy
Grave
Grief
Griev
Grim
Grimly
Heartbreak
Heartbroke
Helpless
Homesick
Hopeless
Hurt
Inadequa
Inferior
Inferiority
Isolate
Lame
Lamely
Lameness
Lamer
Lamest
Lone
Lonelier
Loneliest
Loneliness
Lonely
Loner
Longing
Lose
Loser
Loses
Losing
Loss
Lost
Low
Lower
Lowered
Lowering
Lowers
Lowest
Lowli
Lowly
Melanchol
Miser
Miss
Missed
Misses
Missing
Moum
Neglect
Overwhelm
Pathetic
Pathetically
Pessimis
Pitiable
Pitied
Pities
Pitiful
Pitifully
Pity
Regret
Reject
Remorse
Resign
Ruin
Sad
Sadder
Saddest
Sadly
Sadness
Sigh
Sighed
Sighing
Sob
Sobbed
Sobbing
Sobs
Solemn
Sorrow
Sorry
Suffer
Suffered
Sufferer
Suffering
Suffers
Tears
Traged
Tragic
Tragically
Unhapp
Unsuccessful
Useless

Uselessly	Wept	Woe
Uselessness	Whine	Worthless
Weep	Whining	Yearn